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Of the incomparably more valuable matter contained in the Digest of Justinian some use is made in the lectures and books on the Institutes. What is more important, the course in Institutes is followed by the reading of selected titles from the Digest, and the titles chosen are usually those which deal with the most valuable parts of the Roman law, contracts and movable property. This further study has produced some good monographs.

Of the English books dealing with the Institutes of Justinian one of the best is Moyle's (Clarendon Press), which gives the text "with Introduction, Commentary and Excursus". Roby's Roman Private Law in the Time of Cicero and the Antonines (Cambridge University Press) is essentially a commentary on the Institutes of Gaius. One of the most recent English publications on Roman law, W. W. Buckland's *Elementary Principles of the Roman Private Law* (Cambridge University Press, 1912) is substantially similar in arrangement and in treatment. Mr. Buckland's title is somewhat misleading, for his book presupposes acquaintance with the Institutes of Gaius and Justinian and with the elementary principles therein set forth, and many of his excursions go beyond the elements. None of these books, however, nor any English book, gives so clear, so accurate and so complete a view of Roman private law as Girard's *Manuel de Droit Romain*.

For the classical student, such English and French books are perhaps more useful than the German works on Institutes, in which Roman law is treated as a line of approach to modern law. Even for the classical student, however, if he wishes to appreciate the importance of the Roman contribution to modern law, it may be of advantage to read one of these German introductory works. Fortunately one of the best, Rudolph Sohm's Institutes, has been excellently translated by J. C. Ledlie and has deservedly reached a third English edition (Clarendon Press, 1907). Sheldon Amos, in his *Roman Civil Law* (Kegan, Paul, Trench and Company), undertakes to treat the Roman law from this point of view. In his Preface he asserts that "where forced to select among rival illustrative topics, I have brought into relief all that has specially affected . . . European civilization". Unluckily the execution of the plan is inferior to its conception.

As it is impossible to understand Roman private law without some knowledge of Roman forms of procedure, it is fortunate that we have in English so excellent a book as Greenidge's *The Legal Procedure of Cicero's Time* (Clarendon Press). And even in the most cursory notice of the English books on Roman law, Muirhead's *Historical Introduction to the Private Law of Rome* (revised and edited by Goudy; A. and C. Black) should not be passed over. It is the only good history of Roman Law in English, and it compares favorably with most of the continental histories. There is nothing, however, in English that is so readable as Padeletti's *Storia del Diritto Romano*, or so exhaustive as Karlowa's monumental *Römische Rechtsgeschichte*.

Nor have we in English any such glossary of Roman law terms as Heumann's *Lexikon*. The standard Latin-English dictionaries are lamentably inadequate. In Germany, however, Heumann's *Lexikon* is about to be antiquated by the *Vocabularium Jurisprudentiae Romanae* prepared under the auspices of the Savigny Foundation and in process of publication by Reimer (Berlin).

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MUNROE SMITH.

REVIEWS

Prohistorike Archaologia. By P. Kabbadias. Athens: Press of Paraskeya Leone (1914). Pp. 879. 820 illustrations in the text. 30 Francs.

This is an ambitious work on Greek excavations written in modern Greek by a distinguished Greek scholar and published in Athens. It demands attention by its title and its magnitude, and holds the reader's interest by the importance of its content. Nothing less than a comprehensive survey of the whole field of prehistoric archaeology is the aim of the author; his result includes also a sketch of geology, in the Introduction to the book, and a study of comparative alphabets and systems of writing, in the Appendix. Indeed the range of subjects discussed or mentioned in the book is at first appalling, until it becomes apparent that the kernel of the matter is prehistoric archaeology in Greece; all else is introductory to that theme or is derived therefrom.

The broad scope of treatment may be indicated by a statement of the captions of the six chapters into which the work is divided: Introduction (7-13), statement and outline of the geological periods; Chapter 1 (17-28), general view of prehistoric archaeology; Chapter 2 (29-147), prehistoric archaeology in Europe; Chapters 3, 4, 5 (148-752), prehistoric archaeology in Greece, subdivided into 3, excavations and finds, 4, epochs and chronology, 5, art and civilization; Chapter 6 (753-811), prehistoric archaeology in Anatolia; Appendix (812-858), systems of writing.

In the first chapter the author gives a brief historical account of the development of the science of prehistoric archaeology from the occasional stone implements of prehistoric man, known by the ancient Greeks and Romans, to the firm basis of study furnished by the discovery of the Swiss lake dwellings in 1854, and the finding of the caves in France. The development of man, as now revealed to us through this science, is divided into two periods, the stone age and the metal age, with their respective subdivisions. Archaeology that deals with the stone age is prehistoric, while, says Mr. Kabbadias, the period which begins with the use of metals and continues to historical times should rather be called protohistoric. In Greece the bronze age is mainly protohistoric, whereas in Europe it is almost wholly prehistoric, and there protohistory begins only with the appearance of iron.

The great theme of prehistoric archaeology in Europe is handled in a synoptic manner, with the aim of presenting comparatively the discoveries made in many countries. The matter is arranged chronologically, according to the epochs of prehistory, and each epoch is treated as a unit, containing a description of the objects found dating from the stated period, followed by a discussion of the art and civilization of man as deduced from the discoveries made. All this material is derived from other sources, of which a general bibliography is given at the beginning of the book. References through the text or in paginal footnotes are very rare and the authority for statements made is seldom clear. The chief merit of this part of the book is the arrangement and grouping, in illustration and text, of similar and related objects found in all parts of the world.

The author is at his best when he takes up the subject of prehistoric archaeology in Greece, particularly in Chapter 3, which treats of excavations and finds. An excavator himself of wide experience and notable success, Mr. Kabbadias understands how to present and interpret the results of excavations, and to this subject he has devoted the greater part of his work. The sites are arranged in the chronological order in which they were excavated, beginning with the island group of Thera, where, as a result of investigations in 1866 of the volcanic condition of the island and of seismic disturbances, early remains were found underlying the volcanic deposits and therefore antedating the great eruption that overwhelmed the island, perhaps in 2000 B. C. A brief historical sketch of the site is followed by a short account of the excavations made by Fouqué in 1867, with a description of the foundations of buildings that were uncovered and a statement of the number and character of objects that came to light. Finally an attempt is made to determine the age of this settlement from a study of the strata and the finds.

This method of treatment is applied in succession under numbered subcapitals to all sites where prehistoric objects have been discovered, as Troy, Tiryns, Mycenae and the rest of the Argolid, Laconia, and the many other places too numerous even to mention here. The illustrations are very frequent and picture generously all types of objects found, in addition to showing walls and sites and plans of cities and buildings. Controversial topics are either avoided or presented impartially. In the case of the Ithaca-Leucas dispute, for example, the results of excavations on the two islands are given but no attempt is made to reach a decision, nor is the author's personal opinion mentioned.

Thus we have in this chapter a complete illustrated handbook and guide, written by a master of the subject, on Greek and Aegean settlements of the prehistoric period from Thessaly to Cyprus, a book which is of great importance to the student at home and is indispensable to the archaeologist and intelligent traveler in the Eastern Mediterranean.

Certain phases of the subject already presented are selected and amplified in the chapters on epochs and

chronology, and on art and civilization. As the stratification of deposits on Cretan sites, especially Knosos, is very clear, and has therefore enabled Sir Arthur Evans to determine the various periods of the development of Cretan civilization, that island receives the first place of consideration in the new chapter. The successive epochs are stated and a description is given of the buildings, tombs, pottery and other objects that characterize them. Subsequently the author treats similarly the epochs in Mycenae and in all the other branches of the Graeco-Aegean civilization and concludes with a comparative chronological table. After this division into periods of development grouped according to locality we have a presentation of the same matter arranged in its entirety in accordance with the great chronological epochs, the neolithic, the early bronze, the later bronze, the early iron.

From this outline of the contents it must be obvious that Chapter 4 goes over much of the same ground that has been covered in the preceding chapter, and this fault appears in an exaggerated form in Chapter 5, which elaborates some of the more important details of the civilization mentioned. Such subjects are discussed as settlements and acropolises, houses and palaces, graves and tombs, wall painting, ceramic art and sculpture, but all these topics have been treated before in the accounts of the excavations and time and space are too valuable for the repetition, almost verbatim, of the details of the wall construction of Tiryns, Mycenae, etc. (compare page 607 with pages 192, 194).

An explanation of this frequent recurrence to the same theme may be found, perhaps, in the statement that the book is a synopsis of University lectures, and in the fact that the latter part of the work apparently was prepared for publication some years after the earlier sections. In a supplementary note (879), dated in March, 1914, the author calls attention to this delay and asserts that finally the publication was consummated only through the financial assistance of the Hollander, Mr. A. Goekoop. With all sympathy for Mr. Kabbadias and appreciation of his difficulties it can not be doubted, nevertheless, that the book easily and advantageously could be much condensed by prudent excision and the incorporation of Chapters 3, 4, 5 into a single section that need not have been very much larger than Chapter 3.

To complete the view of prehistoric archaeology so that the civilization of Greece may be compared intelligently with that of all its neighbors the final chapter deals with Egypt and Babylon in the archaeological and chronological method already described in reference to other lands. This is a compilation of material which is useful here for comparative purposes. To this chapter is appended a long account of the development of different systems of writing, in which the author assembles much interesting matter that might have been presented more conveniently in connection with the description of the art and civilization of the places affected.

This outline of the book has been able to do little more than state the subject and describe the methods of treatment employed. There is not space even to mention all the subsidiary topics which are discussed or suggested. Attention, however, should be drawn to the study of the forms, methods and customs of burial. A special section, page 635, is devoted to this subject, but throughout the book emphasis is laid on the interest and importance of burial rites and customs to the investigator of the nature and civilization of primitive peoples. In special sections, too, are given good summary accounts of prehistoric pottery and sculpture, a description of clothing and armor, and an account of the gods and their symbols.

In reviewing a great work like this it is a particularly ungrateful task to dwell at any length on technical blemishes. Let it suffice therefore to say that very many of the pages are marred by careless proof-reading which has permitted illustrations to be inserted upside down and has overlooked errors in the numbering of the pages, in the spelling of Greek and foreign names and words, and in Greek accents and number and gender.

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T. LESLIE SHEAR.

Latin Satirical Writing Subsequent to Juvenal. By Arthur H. Weston. Lancaster, Pa.: Published by the Author (1915). Pp. 165.

According to the Preface,

This volume represents in somewhat enlarged and revised form a dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Yale University, in candidacy for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, in 1911.

The purpose of the work is (10)

to call attention to some of the satirical writing of this later period, to show what forms it took, what subjects it dealt with, and the nature of its treatment of those subjects.

In his Introduction (1), Professor Weston asks, "What is 'satire'?" He finds his answer in the words of Diomedes (Suetonius?): *carmen maledicum ad carpenda hominum vitia archaearum comoediae caractere compositum*. He recognizes the fact that the Romans can claim no originality in the field of satire as far as the content is concerned, but must yield the palm to the Old Comedy of the Greeks. In subject-matter, the classical satirists and the later satirical writers are in accord. The method of attack, of course, differs with each writer, even among the classical satirists. Horace indulges in good-natured banter and Juvenal is austere. We can readily allow the later writers some individuality in their method of satirical writing. But the Romans' boast of originality is in the form of their satire, and here the later satirical writing breaks down. The *carmen maledicum*, which was used by Lucilius, Horace, Persius, and Juvenal, was in the form of hexameter verse, whereas much of the later writing was in prose. Professor Weston realizes this, yet he says (6):

... we find that the satirical spirit has by no means confined itself, in its desire for expression, to the traditional, established hexameter form. In a type of literature like satire, where the content is really the important element, the form cannot be more than a minor consideration.

While we may accept this statement, we must bear in mind that the great Roman satirists did confine their expressions to the hexameter. We must conclude, therefore, that some of these later satirists, notably Ambrose and Jerome, are not worthy successors of Horace, Persius, and Juvenal in the only sense in which these great satirists were peculiarly original. Even those who do use the hexameter verse are valuable largely for their content, not for their form. Professor Weston does not seem to claim that these later writers are pure satirists in the classical sense; he says in his Conclusion (155):

The connotation of the word will not allow us, perhaps, to speak of these apologetical writings as "satires", but it is entirely justifiable to regard them as to a large extent satirical,—as works in which a satirical style and satirical treatment were elements much relied on for effectiveness.

Besides the hexameter and prose, examples are given of the hendecasyllabic verse and the elegiac couplet, which have both been used by good classical satirists.

Having indicated quite clearly in his Introduction the subjects dealt with in this later satirical writing and the forms it took, Professor Weston proceeds, in keeping with his purpose stated above, to call attention to more than twenty writers of the period between Juvenal and the end of the fifth century, whose works contain more or less of the satirical element. After disposing very briefly of three or four satirical poets who were contemporary with Juvenal, he begins his discussion of the later satirical writers. A list of their names will have to suffice: Apuleius, Tertullian, Commodianus, Arnobius, Ausonius, Tetradius, Sulpicia, Prudentius, Carmen Contra Paganos, Carmen Ad Senatorem, Paulinus of Nola, Cresconius, Ambrosius, Hieronymus, Claudian, S. Paulini Epigramma, Orientius, Rutilius Namatianus, Lucilius, Apollinaris Sidonius, Secundinus, Lampridius, Salvianus.

Professor Weston has done admirably what he started out to do. He has made us familiar with later satirical writing, its form, its content, its method. He makes a brave plea for its merit (157):

Post-classical Latin has received less than its due attention, but it has its points, after all, and will in time receive its proper valuation; and readers will see that in this field, as well as in the earlier, the element of satirical writing occupies no unimportant place.

At best, however, these later satirical writings send us back to the classical satirists with a longing for genial and good-natured humor, and for concentrated rhetorical brilliance.

Not only has the field itself been thoroughly examined, but the literature bearing on the subject has been exhausted. The bibliography is quite